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# A novel SO<sub>3</sub>• mediated photoelectrocatalytic system based on MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and CuNW@CF for the efficient treatment of sulfurous and nitrogenous oxides

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### ABSTRACT

Sulfurous and nitrogenous oxides, including  $NO_x$  and  $SO_2$ , and the generated substances  $NO_x$  and  $SO_3^2$  widely exist in air and water as pollutants and thus are difficult to control in the environment. In this study, we designed a novel photoelectrocatalytic (PEC) system for the efficient conversion of  $SO_2$  and  $NO_x$  in mixed gases and  $NO_x$  and  $SO_3^2$  in wastewater to  $N_2$  and  $SO_4^2$ , respectively, by activating  $SO_3^2$  to form  $SO_3\bullet$ . The key ideas include the conversion of  $SO_3^2$  from  $SO_2$  and efficient activation of  $SO_3^2$  into  $SO_3\bullet$  and further conversion into  $SO_4\bullet$  by the  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$  photoanode. Simultaneously,  $NO_3/NO_2$  originating from  $NO_x$  was rapidly reduced to  $NH_4^+$  on the CuNW@CF cathode. Ultimately, the generated  $NH_4^+$  was selectively oxidized to  $N_2$  by  $SO_4\bullet$  and  $SO_4\bullet$  was reduced to  $SO_4^2$ . The results indicated that 99.9 % of TN was removed and 100 % of  $SO_3^2$  was converted to harmless  $SO_4^2$ . This study provides new insights into the treatment of sulfurous and nitrogenous oxides in air and water.

# 1. Introduction

Sulfurous and nitrogenous oxides, including  $NO_x$  and  $SO_2$ , and the generated substances  $NO_x^-$  and  $SO_2^2$  widely exist in air and water as pollutants, and they are difficult to control in the environment. Industrial activities, including fuel combustion, iron and steel smelting, and oil refining generate acidic gases, such as nitric oxides ( $NO_x$ ) and sulfur dioxide ( $SO_2$ ) [1–3]. Furthermore, the food and electroplating industries discharge large amounts of sulfite ( $SO_2^{3-}$ ) and nitrite/nitrate ( $NO_x^-$ ) [4], which the concentration of N (nitrate) and of S (sulfite) are 12–250 mg/L and more than 200 mg/L, separately [5–7]. Although selective catalytic reduction (SCR) and limestone wet treatment have high efficiency for  $NO_x$  and  $SO_2$  removal [8–10], their complicated treatment and high running costs are unfavorable for small-scale applications [11]. In particular, more than 800,000 small- and medium-sized coal-fired boilers and industrial furnaces operate in China, and they cannot be simultaneously equipped with wet flue gas

desulphurization (WFGD) and NH3-SCR treatment technology because of the huge associated costs [11]. In addition, SO<sub>3</sub> oxidation is critical for the further desulfurization and denitrification treatments because it is related to the purification of flue gas and utilization of the end products, while the drawbacks associated with SO<sub>3</sub> oxidation are still observed [12]. In addition, high nitrate levels (including NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>3</sub>) in water lead to eutrophication and even threaten human health, and the conversion of NO<sub>x</sub> to N<sub>2</sub> has drawn considerable attention [13]. The simultaneous removal technologies for S and N oxide compounds from air and water is desirable for small- and medium-sized industrial production units because of increasing environmental pressure. To date, biological treatment, membrane separation, and electrochemical technologies have been applied as removal technologies [14-16]. However, the extreme environmental conditions used in these technologies restrict the survival of microorganisms, resulting in inefficient biological treatments [17]. In addition, the high cost of membranes restricts the large-scale use of membrane separation [18]. Additionally, the

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reduction products of nitrates are not easily processed by electrochemical technology [19] because directly converting  $NO_3$  to nitrogen  $(N_2)$  is difficult [20]. Unfortunately, effective and environmentally friendly methods have not been found to remove  $NO_x$ .

Recently, photoelectrocatalytic (PEC) technology for pollutant removal has been intensively studied because this technology can utilize solar energy to generate reactive oxides in situ without the addition of chemicals [21–25]. For example, our previous work confirmed that the conversion of  $NO_3$  to  $N_2$  was achieved by in situ activation of chloride ions to generate chlorine radicals (Cl $\bullet$ ) [23,26]. However, the PEC activation of chloride ions to generate Cl $\bullet$  inevitably produces toxic by-products, such as chlorate (ClO $_3$ ) and perchlorate (ClO $_4$ ) ions [27–29], which is a serious problem in water purification.

Inspiringly, researchers have reported that  $SO_3^{2-}$  conversion can be catalyzed using transition metals (Mn, Co, Mo, or Fe) to generate sulfite free radicals (SO<sub>3</sub>• ) and then further converted to sulfate free radicals (SO<sub>4</sub>• ) [30–34]. Meanwhile, SO<sub>4</sub>• possesses excellent oxidizing ability with standard reduction potential of 2.5-3.1 V vs. NHE, and it has a preeminent oxidative hydrogen abstraction capability and can selectively oxidize  $NH_4^+$  to  $N_2$  as it is converted into  $SO_4^{2-}$  [35]. Zhang et al. reported that a MoS<sub>2</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> photoanode can capture SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2</sup> to form SO<sub>y</sub>•  $(SO_3 \bullet^- \text{ and } SO_4 \bullet^-)$ , and the formed radicals can selectively oxidize NH<sub>4</sub> to N<sub>2</sub> [21]. Notably, replacing reactive chlorine species with SO<sub>4</sub>• can effectively prevent the production of toxic chlorate (e.g., ClO<sub>3</sub> and ClO<sub>4</sub>) [36,37]. Evidently, this is not only of great significance in denitrification treatment but it can also be used to convert harmful  $SO_3^{2-}$  in water bodies to harmless SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>. Importantly, according to published papers, NO<sub>3</sub> can be efficiently reduced to NH<sub>4</sub> using modified copper foam [19,26,38, 39]. Hence, combining the above two ideas can solve the problem of NO<sub>3</sub> being selectively converted to N<sub>2</sub> in an environmentally friendly manner. In addition to the formed ionic  $NO_3$  and  $SO_3^{2-}$ , the designed PEC system also comprehensively treats acid gas mixed with NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>. Hence, a gas absorber was added in front of the constructed PEC system to broaden the practical applicability, thereby ensuring the efficient treatment of homogeneous waste gas and wastewater.

A novel dual-function PEC system was constructed to efficiently convert  $SO_2$  and  $NO_x$  in waste gas and  $SO_3^2$  and  $NO_x$  in wastewater to  $SO_4^{2^-}$  and  $N_2$ , respectively. Meanwhile,  $SO_3^{2^-}$  obtained from the environment or from NaOH absorption was first oxidized efficiently into  $SO_3\bullet$  on the  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$  photoanode, in which the  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$  photoanode with superior alkali corrosion resistance showed excellent ability to induce  $SO_3^{2^-}$  to form  $SO_4\bullet^-$  under light irradiation [30,40,41]. Copper nanowire-decorated copper foam (CuNW@CF) cathodes have an outstanding capacity to reduce  $NO_x$  to  $NH_4^+$  because of their large surface area and substantial number of Cu active sites. Ultimately,  $NH_4^+$  in the system is selectively oxidized to  $N_2$  by  $SO_4\bullet^-$  and  $SO_4\bullet^-$  is eventually reduced to  $SO_4^{2^-}$ . This study offers new insights into the treatment of waste gas or wastewater containing  $NO_x$  and  $SO_2$  via a simple and safe method.

# 2. Materials and methods

## 2.1. Chemicals and reagents

Fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO,  $13~\Omega~cm^{-1}$ ) and copper foam (CF, 1 mm thick) were purchased from Nippon Sheet Glass Co., Ltd., China., and Suzhou Taili Metal Foam Co., Ltd., China. Analytical reagent grade NaNO<sub>3</sub>, NaNO<sub>2</sub>, (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>, and NaOH were obtained from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd., China. Tert-butanol (TBA), thiourea, and dimethyl pyridine N-oxide (DMPO) were obtained from Aladdin Industrial Corporation. Milli-Q ultrapure water was used to produce deionized (DI) water. High-purity compressed gases (NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, and N<sub>2</sub>) were purchased from Air Liquide Co., Ltd., Shanghai, China.

### 2.2. Electrode preparation

The  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$  photoanode was prepared in two steps (Figure. S1) [42,43]. First,  $Fe_2O_3$  nanorods were grown on FTO via a hydrothermal method. Then,  $MoS_2$  nanoclusters were further fabricated on the prepared  $Fe_2O_3$  nanorods via a hydrothermal method. Finally, the prepared  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$  was washed with deionized (DI) water and dried at 60 °C under vacuum. The CuNW@CF cathode was prepared by in situ wet-chemical oxidation and electrochemical reduction [44]. The details of the  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$  photoanode and CuNW@CF cathode preparation are provided in the Supplementary materials.

### 2.3. Analytic methods

The gases produced from the constructed system, including NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, N2, and SO2, were analyzed using an on-line GC system (Fuli Instruments, 9790Plus, Taizhou, China). The concentrations of ions containing SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> were confirmed via ion chromatography (MIC, METROHM, Switzerland), and the standard colorimetric method was performed using a UV-visible spectrophotometer (752N, INESA, Shanghai, China) to determine the concentrations of NO<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>. The respective calibration curves are shown in Fig. S2. A Multi N/C 3100 TOC/TN analyzer (Analytikjena, Germany) was used to determine the TN concentration. Electron spin resonance spectroscopy (ESR, Micro ESR, USA) was used to determine the free radicals. Different types of electrodes were used in the CHI 660E electrochemical analyzer to compare the photoelectric activity, including the linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). X-ray diffraction (XRD, Rigaku D-Max B), field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM, Zeiss SUPRA55-VP), and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, AXIS UltraDLD) were used to determine the phases and crystallinity (XRD), morphology and elemental composition (FE-SEM), and chemical state (XPS) of the prepared electrodes.

# 2.4. Degradation experiment

The constructed PEC reactor was implemented in a single quartz reactor with a conventional three-electrode configuration, in which CuNW@CF was the working electrode (2.5  $\times$  4 cm²), MoS $_2$ /Fe $_2$ O $_3$  was the counter electrode (2.5  $\times$  4 cm²), and Ag/AgCl was the reference electrode. The constructed system was operated using an electrochemical workstation under irradiation (100 mW cm $^{-2}$ ) using a 350 W Xe lamp (Perfect, China) in a single chamber. Moreover, we equipped a closed-reactor device to determine the amount of gas produced. Different NO: NO $_2$  ratios and variable concentrations of SO $_2$  were dissolved in NaOH solution to simulate the lye absorption of waste liquid under different exhaust gas conditions. The electrolyte solutions were 0.1 M NaOH solutions with different concentrations of SO $_3^2$ -, NO $_2$ , and NO $_3$ -. H $_2$ SO $_4$  (5 M) was used to adjust the initial pH of the simulated solution.

### 2.5. Construction of the gas absorption device

The gas absorption device placed before the PEC system is shown in Fig. S3. First, the  $\rm N_2$  gas cylinder was opened to circulate the gas circuit and then closed. Next, the flow of  $\rm SO_2$  was controlled by the pressure-reducing valve, the  $\rm SO_2$  gas cylinder was closed, and  $\rm NO_2$  and  $\rm NO$  were introduced. Finally, different acidic gases were absorbed by pumping into a sodium hydroxide (NaOH) solution. After the complete absorption of exhaust gases, the waste liquid (containing  $\rm SO_3^{2r}$ , NO3, and NO2) flowed into the PEC reactor. Finally, both NOx and SO2 were converted to harmless  $\rm N_2$  and  $\rm SO_4^{2r}$  in the body of the PEC reactor.

# 2.6. Experiment and data-processing method

The removal experiments were conducted in a single quartz reactor

(specification 100 mL: the volume of the added solution was 80 mL). The distance between the anode and cathode was maintained at 3 cm, and the immersion areas of the cathode and anode were both 5 cm $^2$  (2.5 cm  $\times$  2 cm), in which the applied potential was -1.4 V vs. Ag/AgCl. Furthermore, the simulated solution containing 30 mg/L TN (different rate of NO3: NO2), 0.02 M SO3 $^2$ , and 0.1 M NaOH were used in the experiments. The removal rate was calculated based on the following equation.

Removal rate = 
$$(C_0 - C_t)/C_0 \times 100 \%$$
 (1)

where  $C_0$  is the initial concentration and  $C_t$  is concentration at t-time. The conversion between the potentials vs. Ag/AgCl and vs. RHE was performed using the following equation:

$$E (vs\cdot RHE) = E (vs\cdot Ag/AgCl) + 0.199V + 0.0591V \times pH$$
 (2)

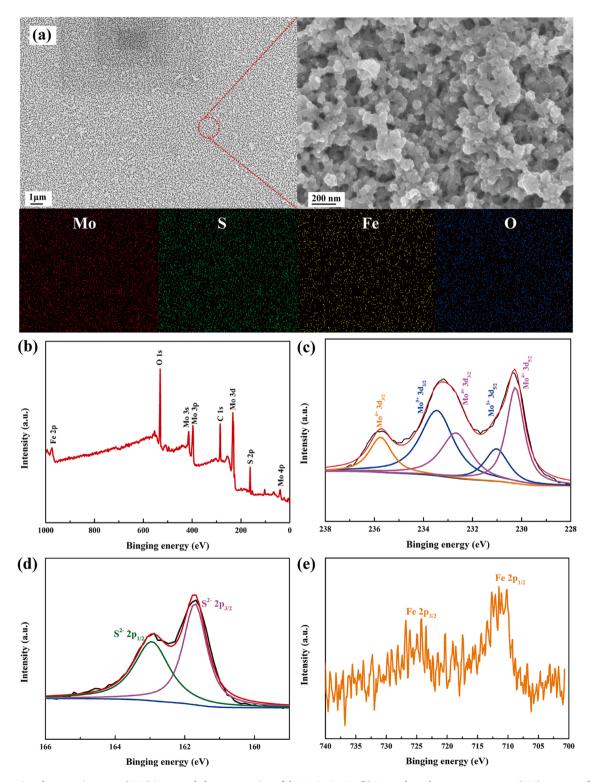


Fig. 1. (a) scanning electron microscope (SEM) image and element mapping of the  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$ . (b) X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) patterns of  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$  electrode; (c-e) Mo 3d peak, S 2p peak and Fe 2p peak of  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$  electrode.

### 3. Results and discussion

# 3.1. Characterization of CuNW@CF cathode

Figs. S4a and S4b display SEM images of CuNW@CF, in which the modified CuNWs (approximately 50–150 nm in diameter) were coated on the copper foam. The XRD results (Fig. S4c) showed diffraction peaks representative of metallic Cu at  $43.3^{\circ}$ ,  $50.4^{\circ}$ , and  $74.1^{\circ}$  [39]. Moreover, as shown in Fig. S4d, the Cu 2p spectrum contained two peaks at 931.8 and 934.4 eV, and comparing the intensities of these two peaks indicated that the main nanowires were converted to pure copper [38].

### 3.2. Characterization of MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>

FE-SEM was used to investigate the morphology and elemental distribution of the MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> anode (Fig. 1a). As shown in Fig. 1a, after the two-step process, Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods (Fig. S5) grown on FTO were evidently covered with MoS2 nanoclusters, among which the sizes of the MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoclusters were approximately 100 nm. In addition, the electrochemical active surface area (ECSA) of the MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> photoanode was evaluated using the electrochemical double-layer capacitances (Fig. S6), in which the active surface area increased to 2 cm<sup>-2</sup>. Elemental mapping confirmed the elemental distributions of MoS2 and Fe2O3. Owing to the low content of modified MoS2, the XRD pattern did not show significant differences between the Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> electrodes (Fig. S7). XPS measurements were performed to confirm the elemental composition and valence state of MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. In Fig. 1b, characteristic peaks were observed in the total XPS spectra, which indicated that the prepared catalyst contained four elements of Mo, S, Fe, and O. Fig. 1c shows that the peaks at 230.2 eV and 232.7 eV were Mo<sup>4+</sup> 3d, the peaks at 231.1 eV and 233.5 eV were Mo<sup>5+</sup> 3d, and the peak at 235.8 eV was Mo<sup>6+</sup> 3d [45]. In Fig. 1d, peaks located at 161.7 eV and 162.9 eV were  $S^2$  2p<sub>3/2</sub> and  $S^2$  2p<sub>1/2</sub> of MoS<sub>2</sub>, respectively [45]. Additionally, Fig. 1e shows that the peaks located at 710.8 eV and 724.3 eV, 713.0 eV, and 727.1 eV were Fe $^{2+}$  2p and Fe $^{3+}$  2p, respectively [46]. Moreover, MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> exhibited an outstanding photocurrent density, as indicated by the LSV curves (Fig. S8a). The photocurrent density of single  $MoS_2$  and  $Fe_2O_3$  was 0.44 and 0.58 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> at 1.23 V, respectively. Nevertheless, the photocurrent density increased to  $2.22\,\mathrm{mA}\,\mathrm{cm}^{-2}$ when MoS<sub>2</sub> and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> were combined to fabricate the MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> electrode. The UV-Vis absorption spectra in Fig. S8b show that the absorbance of MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was higher than that of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> because the photogenerated carriers of MoS2 are more easily excited than Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>[47], which affects the absorption capacity. The prepared MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> electrode using the epitaxial MoS<sub>2</sub> layer based on band matching enhanced the surface area and facilitated interfacial charge

transport owing to Fermi level matching of  $MoS_2$  and  $Fe_2O_3$ . Hence, the fabricated  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$  electrode broadened the wavelength absorption range and increased the photocurrent density.

### 3.3. Mechanism of sulfite radicals mediated TN removal

The probable mechanism underlying the designed PEC system is shown in Fig. 2a. First, sulfurous and nitrogenous oxides, including NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>, were absorbed into the NaOH solution to form NO<sub>x</sub> (NO<sub>3</sub> and  $NO_2$ ) and  $SO_3^2$  (Eqs. 3–4). Detailed information on the concentrations of different pollutants is shown in Table S1. Photogenerated holes (h<sup>+</sup>) and electrons were produced on the MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> photoanode under irradiation (Eq. 5) [21] because of the easy band gap transition and good absorption of light by MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Meanwhile, the valence band energies (EVB) of pristine MoS2 and Fe2O3 are 1.78 and 2.09 eV, respectively (Figs. S9 and S10). The E<sub>VB</sub> of MoS<sub>2</sub> was higher than that of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, thus forming a heterojunction. In addition, both MoS2 and Fe2O3 absorbed photons to generate charge carriers under illumination, and the electrons in the conduction band (CB) of MoS2 flowed into the CB of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and were then injected into FTO to flow to the CuNW@CF to reduce NO<sub>x</sub>. The holes generated in the valence band (VB) of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> flowed into the VB of  $MoS_2$  to effectively oxidize  $SO_3^{2-}$  (Eq. 6) [48]. Thereafter,  $SO_3 \bullet^-$  was further oxidized to  $SO_5 \bullet^-$  and  $SO_4 \bullet^-$  (Eqs. 7–8) [32, 35,49]. Simultaneously, NO<sub>3</sub> was easily adsorbed on the CuNW@CF cathode (Eq. 9) [19] and converted to NO<sub>2</sub> (Eq. 10) [19]. Similarly, NO<sub>2</sub> was also adsorbed on the CNW@CF cathode (Eq. 11) [19] and further rapidly reduced to NH<sub>4</sub> (Eq. 12) [19] because the modified CuNWs provided more abundant active sites, which accelerated the reduction reaction of NO<sub>x</sub> [19,50]. To confirm this assertion, the ECSA of CF and CuNW@CF were measured, and the results are shown in Fig. S11. The ECSA (12.8 cm<sup>-2</sup>) was dramatically increased after the modification of CuNWs, and the value of CuNW@CF was 4.2 times greater than that of pure CF. Moreover,  $SO_3 \bullet^-$  and  $SO_5 \bullet^-$  were converted to  $SO_4 \bullet^-$ , which dominated the oxidation of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>. Ultimately, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> was completely oxidized to N<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>4</sub>• was converted to SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> after a series of reactions (Eqs. 13-16) [21,48], which realized the efficient removal of NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> simultaneously. Notably, NO<sub>3</sub> was first reduced to NO<sub>2</sub>, which resulted in an increase in NO<sub>2</sub> during the initial 10 min (Fig. S12a). Finally, TN was effectively converted into  $N_2$ , and all the toxic  $SO_3^{2-}$  was efficiently transformed into non-toxic SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>. In total, 99.9 % N<sub>2</sub> and 100 % SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> were generated (Fig. 2b). In addition, as the reaction progressed, the pH increased slowly and finally reached 12.67 because more OHwas generated in the entire reaction (eqs 17, 18) (Fig. S12b).

$$2NO_2 + 2OH^- \rightarrow NO_2^- + NO_3^- + H_2O$$
 (3)

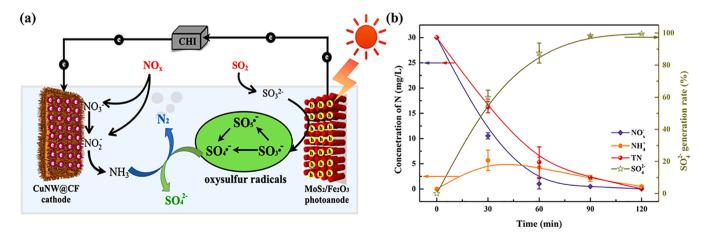


Fig. 2. (a) schematic illustration of the mechanism of the constructed PEC system; (b) the variation of  $NO_{x}^{\circ}$ ,  $NH_{+}^{+}$ , TN (left Y axis) and  $SO_{4}^{2}$  (right Y axis) in the constructed system during the reaction. Condition:  $SO_{3}^{2}$ : 20 mmol/L, pH = 12, TN (15 mg/L  $NO_{2}$  and 15 mg/L  $NO_{3}^{\circ}$ ), potential – 1.4 V vs Ag/AgCl.

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$$SO_2 + 2OH^- \rightarrow SO_3^{2-} + H_2O$$

$$MoS_2/Fe_2O_3 + h\nu \rightarrow h^+ + e$$
 (5)

$$SO_3^{2-} + h^+ \rightarrow SO_3 \bullet^{-} \tag{6}$$

$$SO_3 \bullet^- + O_2 \rightarrow SO_5 \bullet^- k = 1 \cdot 0 - 2 \cdot 5 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$$
 (7)

$$SO_5 \bullet^{-} + SO_3^{2-} \to SO_4 \bullet^{-} + SO_4 \bullet^{-} k = (10^4 - 10^7) \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$$
 (8)

$$NO_3^- + CuNW \rightarrow CuNW-NO_{ads}^-$$
 (9)

$$CuNW-NO_{ads}^{-} + H_2O + 2e \rightarrow CuNW-NO_{ads}^{-} + 2OH^{-}$$
(10)

$$NO_2^- + CuNW \rightarrow CuNW-NO_{2ds}^-$$
 (11)

$$\text{CuNW-NO}_{2ds}^{-} + 5 \text{ H}_2\text{O} + 6\text{e} \rightarrow \text{NH}_4^{+} + \text{CuNW} + 7\text{OH}^{-}$$
 (12)

$$NH_4^+ + SO_4 \bullet^- \rightarrow \bullet NH_2 + SO_4^{2-} + H^+ k = 3.0 \times 10^5 M^{-1} s^{-1}$$
 (13)

$$\bullet NH + SO_4 \bullet^{-} \rightarrow \bullet N + SO_4^{2-} + H^{+}$$
(15)

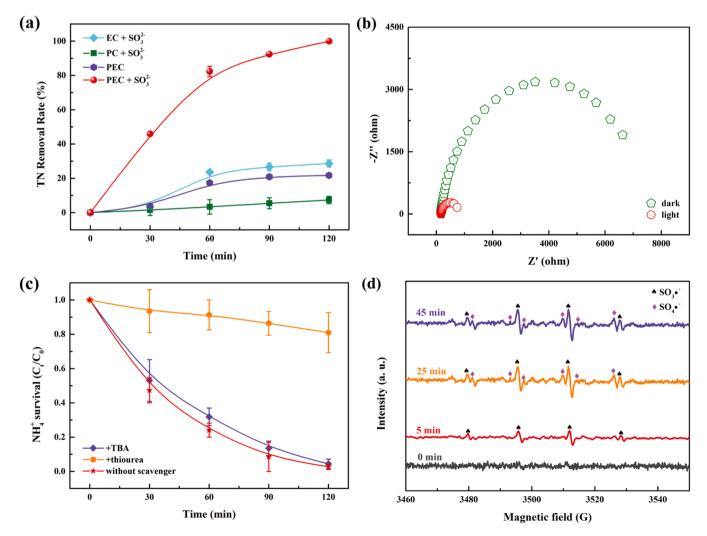
$$\bullet N + \bullet N \to N_2 \tag{16}$$

To further confirm the removal effect of the anode on the radicals generated for TN, different anodes were used for comparison. Fig. S13 shows the removal of TN via  $Fe_2O_3$ ,  $MoS_2$ , and  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$ . The removal reaction obeyed first-order kinetics, and 40.68 % and 69.39 %

of TN were removed for  $Fe_2O_3$  and  $MoS_2$ , respectively, which had rate constants of 0.0069 and 0.0102 min<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. As for  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$ , approximately 99.9 % of TN was decomposed in 120 min, and the rate constant (0.0294 min<sup>-1</sup>) was 4.3 times and 2.9 times greater than that of  $Fe_2O_3$  and  $MoS_2$ , respectively. Since  $SO_4\bullet^-$  can selectively oxidize  $NH_4^+$  into  $N_2$  when the  $SO_4\bullet^-$  generated on both  $Fe_2O_3$  and  $MoS_2$  was insufficient, the formation of a type II heterojunction of the  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$  electrode was proposed using epitaxial growth of the  $MoS_2$  based on band matching. This process improved the photocurrent, resulting in the generation of  $SO_4\bullet^-$  on  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$ . Finally,  $SO_4\bullet^-$  converts  $NH_4^+$  into  $N_2$  and achieves efficient denitrification. Hence,  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$  showed the best performance compared to  $Fe_2O_3$  and  $MoS_2$  electrodes.

### 3.4. Removal performance of the photoelectrocatalytic system

To reveal the performance of the novel PEC system, we compared different catalytic systems, and the results are displayed in Figs. S14, S15, and 3.  $\rm SO_3^{2^-}$  was completely converted into  $\rm SO_4^{2^-}$  in the PEC system, and the generation rate (0.044 min<sup>-1</sup>) was 11.0 times and 3.4 times higher than that of the photocatalytic (PC) (0.004 min<sup>-1</sup>) and electrocatalytic (EC) (0.013 min<sup>-1</sup>) systems, respectively. In addition, Fig. S15 shows that the tendencies of  $\rm NO_3^-$  reduction in EC and PEC were basically the same: all  $\rm NO_3^-$  was reduced in 120 min while only 7.1 mg/L of  $\rm NO_3^-$  was reduced in the EC system, which is because  $\rm NO_3^-$  reduction should



(4)

Fig. 3. (a) TN (15 mg/L NO $_{2}$  and 15 mg/L NO $_{3}$ ) removal versus time by electrocatalytic-sulfite, photocatalytic-sulfite, phtoelectrocatalytic and phtoelectrocatalytic sulfite systems; (b) electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) analysis of MoS $_{2}$ /Fe $_{2}$ O $_{3}$  in different conditions; (c) the experiments of NH $_{4}^{+}$  degradation with different scavenger; (d) electron spin-resonance spectroscopy (ESR) spectra in phtoelectrocatalytic and phtoelectrocatalytic-sulfite systems.

overcome high kinetic barriers [51]. Fig. 3a shows the TN removal rate in different systems. The PC system showed poor TN removal capability, in which only 7.4 % of TN was removed in 120 min and 14.4 mg/L of NO<sub>3</sub> and 13.0 mg/L of NO<sub>2</sub> remained (Fig. S16). Almost all NO<sub>x</sub> was reduced to NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (21.6 mg/L) via the EC system, resulting in 28.7 % of TN was degraded because the PC system cannot overcome the reduction barrier of NO<sub>x</sub> compared to the EC system. In addition, we tested the performance of a PEC system without  $SO_3^2$  that achieved 21.8 % TN removal, in which NH<sub>4</sub> was directly oxidized by the MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> photoanode [52]. In addition, 18.3 mg/L NH<sub>4</sub> and 5.1 mg/L NO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. S16) remained after 120 min. However, the PEC system with SO3 showed a predominant performance for TN removal, in which 99.9 % of TN was discomposed without any nitrogen compound residues. Compared with PC and EC systems, MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> of PEC can very effectively generate h<sup>+</sup> under irradiation and directly oxidize  $SO_3^{2-}$  on the surface to generate SO<sub>3</sub>• and further form SO<sub>4</sub>•. In addition, owing to the effect of the external electrical energy, the electrons are directly transferred to the cathode to reduce NO<sub>x</sub> to NH<sub>4</sub>, thereby effectively inhibiting the recombination of electrons and holes generated in MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and finally breaking the limitations of PC and EC in mass transfer. Subsequently, the generated SO<sub>4</sub>• selectively oxidizes NH<sub>4</sub> to N<sub>2</sub> to achieve TN removal [35]. Notably, the reaction combining  $SO_3^{2-}$  oxidation and  $NO_x$  reduction is a thermodynamically spontaneous process (eqs. 17,18).

$$2NO_2^- + 3SO_3^{2-} + H_2O \rightarrow N_2 + 3SO_4^{2-} + 2OH^-$$
 (17)

 $\Delta G = -1083.84 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ 

$$2NO_3^{-} + 5SO_3^{2-} + H_2O \rightarrow N_2 + 5SO_4^{2-} + 2OH^{-}$$
 (18)

 $\Delta G = -744.28 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ .

Hence, the PEC-sulfite system improved the rate constant of TN removal to 0.0294 min<sup>-1</sup>, which was 12.8 times, 42.0 times, and 9.2 times higher than that of the pure PEC, PE-sulfite, and EC-sulfite systems, respectively (Fig. S17a). Because the photoanodic catalytic activation of  $SO_3^{2-}$  to  $SO_3 \bullet^-$  determines the denitrification ability, we explored the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) Nyquist analysis of light on the anodic charge transport in the PEC-sulfite system, where the diameter of the fitted semicircle represents the charge transfer resistance, which is inversely proportional to the rate of charge transfer in the MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> anode. In the Nyquist plot shown in Fig. 3b, the MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> system under light had a much narrower semicircle diameter than that in the dark, indicating that the resistance to carrier migration under illumination was decreased. However, both light and  $SO_3^{2-}$  mainly involved anode reactions, in which the charge transfer behavior of CuNW@CF displayed no evident change (Fig. S18). The active ingredients of the constructed system were further investigated based on the performance of the PEC-sulfite system. First, a series of experiments using different radical scavengers was performed to exclude the interference of other possible oxidant species. Tert-butyl alcohol (TBA) quenching of OH• was used to demonstrate the role of OH•, whereas thiourea can remove both OH• and  $SO_x$ • [49,53]. As shown in Figs. 3c and S17b, the NH<sub>4</sub> removal performance of thiourea dramatically decreased, with a removal rate constant of 0.0017 min<sup>-1</sup>. On the contrary, the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> removal performance with TBA showed no evident change compared with the condition without the addition of the scavenger (0.0254 min<sup>-1</sup>). The results in Figs. 3c and S17b illustrated the absence of OH• and the key role of SO<sub>x</sub>• in TN removal. ESR was used to detect radical species. In Fig. 3d, an clear peak was not observed before the PEC-sulfite system booted, whereas the same characteristic peak as the standard peak of SO<sub>3</sub>• appeared (provided by Bruker Biosciences Corporation, Fig. S19a) after 5 min of reaction. Moreover, as the PEC-sulfite reaction continued, the characteristic peaks of SO<sub>3</sub>• and SO<sub>4</sub>• appeared together (reaction time: 25 and 45 min, respectively), which indicated that SO<sub>3</sub>• was further converted into SO<sub>4</sub>•. However, clear characteristic peaks were not observed when thiourea was added to the PEC-sulfite system (Fig. S19b), which further confirmed that

 $SO_4\bullet^-$ , sourced from  $SO_3\bullet^-$  and  $SO_3\bullet^-$ , played a key role in denitrification.

### 3.5. Effect of the applied potential

The applied potential significantly affects the reduction of NO<sub>x</sub>, the results of which are shown in Figs. 4a and S20a. The TN removal rate increased as the applied potential increased. For example, 54.0 % of TN was removed at -0.1 V, and  $1.6 \text{ mg/L NO}_3$ ,  $11.4 \text{ mg/L NO}_2$ , and  $0.8 \text{ mg/L NH}_4^+$  remained; however, 71.9 % of TN was removed at -0.3 Vand only 8.0 mg/L NO2 remained. With further improvements in the applied potential, almost all TN was removed (more than 99 %) and no other nitrogen compounds were detected (below the detection limit). The enhancement in TN removal was attributed to the occurrence of NO<sub>x</sub> reduction at a higher potential. Additionally, faradaic efficiency represents another parameter for determining the optimal applied potential. As shown in Fig. S21, the faradaic efficiency at -0.5 V was higher than that at other applied potentials because of the inhibition of hydrogen evolution. Therefore, considering both the TN removal performance and faradaic efficiency, the applied potential of -0.5 V was the most suitable condition for the PEC system.

### 3.6. Effect of the initial pH

Because lye was used in the process of absorbing acid gas, the absorbing liquid remained alkaline. Hence, we studied denitrification under conditions of high initial pH values (pH 8–14), and the results are displayed in Fig. 4b. TN removal remained high at different pH values: 93.2 %, 99.2 %, 99.9 %, and 99.9 % of TN were removed, which corresponded to pH values of 8, 10, 12, and 14, respectively. Moreover, except at pH 8 (1.4 mg/L NH $_4^+$  remained), no nitrogen compounds were detected after the reaction (Fig. S20b) because SO<sub>3</sub>• is easily generated under alkaline conditions, which converts NH $_4^+$  to N $_2$ , resulting in efficient TN removal [54]. Therefore, with a high pH value, no NH $_4^+$  residual or TN were removed. Thus, a pH of 12 was selected for the simulated wastewater.

# 3.7. Effect of $SO_3^{2-}$ concentration

 $SO_3^2$  can not only promote the reduction of  $NO_x$  but can also be used as a raw material to produce SO<sub>4</sub>•, which achieves efficient denitrification. Therefore, different concentrations of SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> were added to the PEC system to verify its effectiveness. As shown in Fig. 4c, TN removal was influenced by the concentrations of  $SO_3^{2-}$ , in which the removal rate of TN increased as the concentration of  $SO_3^{2-}$  increased. When no  $SO_3^{2-}$ was added, only 21.7 % of TN was removed and 9.3 mg/L NO2 and 14.0 mg/L NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> remained in system (Fig. S20c) because NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> can be oxidized by transition metals under alkaline conditions[52]. As the amount of added  $SO_3^{2-}$  continued to increase (5–25 mmol/L), the denitrification performance improved, with TN removal rates of 51.0 %, 66.7 %, 99.9 %, and 99.9 %. SO<sub>4</sub>• was derived from SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2</sup> via the MoS<sub>2</sub>/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> photoanode, which dominated the conversion of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> to N<sub>2</sub>, resulting in a dramatic decrease in NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> residue and high TN removal. Hence, more TN was removed at a higher initial concentration of  $SO_3^{2-}$ . Correspondingly, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> remained because the initial concentrations of SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2</sup> was lower than 20 mM (Fig. S20c), which failed to generate sufficient SO4. for the selective conversion of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>.

### 3.8. Effect of the ratio of NO<sub>2</sub>: NO<sub>3</sub>

Different ratios of  $NO_2$ :  $NO_3$  were formed during the absorption of NaOH for  $NO_x$ . Hence, the performance of the PEC system was tested because different ratios of  $NO_2$ :  $NO_3$  waste liquid may be formed during the spray absorption process. As shown in Fig. 4d, all ratios of  $NO_2$ :  $NO_3$  could be efficiently degraded in 120 min, and all types of nitrogencontaining compounds were lower than the detection value (Fig. S20d), which showed extremely similar tendencies. Cu nanowires

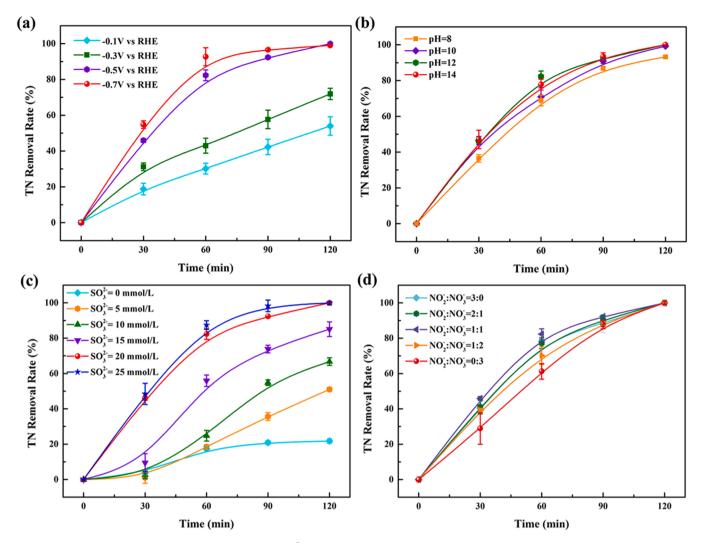


Fig. 4. Effect of (a) applied potential (vs RHE), (b) initial pH, (c) SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2</sup> concentration and (d) ratio of NO<sub>2</sub>:NO<sub>3</sub> on TN removal. TN: 15 mg/L NO<sub>2</sub> and 15 mg/L NO<sub>3</sub>.

with abundant active sites displayed excellent ability to reduce  $NO_x$ , in which both  $NO_3$  and  $NO_2$  were effectively converted to  $NH_4^+[19,26,38]$ . Simultaneously,  $SO_4\bullet^-$  generated by the  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$  photoanode further oxidized the generated  $NH_4^+$  into  $N_2$ , thus realizing the efficient

removal of TN. In summary, the constructed PEC system was feasible for treating wastewater with different compositions of  $NO_x$  and showed remarkable denitrification performance.

The specific conversion of SO<sub>2</sub> to non-toxic SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> can be divided into

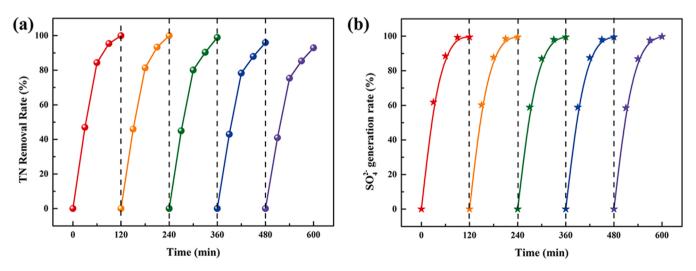


Fig. 5. (a) removal of TN and (b)  $SO_4^{2-}$  generation in PEC system during five tests at 120 intervals. Condition:  $SO_3^{2-}$  20 mmol/L, pH = 12, TN (15 mg/L NO<sub>2</sub> and 15 mg/L NO<sub>3</sub>), potential -1.4 V vs Ag/AgCl.

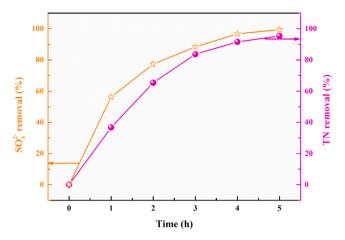
two steps: absorption and PEC reaction. First,  $SO_2$  was absorbed by NaOH solution and converted to  $SO_3^{2^-}$ . Then,  $h^+$  was generated on  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$  under light irradiation and captured by  $SO_3^{2^-}$  adsorbed onto the active sites of  $MoS_2/Fe_2O_3$  to form  $SO_3\bullet^-$  and  $SO_4\bullet^-$  (Eqs. 6–8). Meanwhile,  $SO_4\bullet^-$  was rapidly captured by  $NH_4^+$ , and oxidized to  $SO_4^{2^-}$  (Eqs. 13–15). Although dissolved oxygen was rare in the solution,  $SO_3^{2^-}$  could partially react with dissolved  $O_2$  to form  $SO_4^{2^-}$ . However, compared with  $NO_x$  reduction, which should overcome the high kinetic barriers [51],  $SO_3^{2^-}$  could more easily convert to  $SO_4^{2^-}$  via PEC, in which  $SO_3^{2^-}$  was completely transformed into  $SO_4^{2^-}$  under different conditions (Table S2). Hence, we mainly discuss denitrification under different conditions.

# 3.9. Stability and application

The catalytic stability and selectivity of the photoanode and cathode are critical for further application. Thus, additional tests were performed to study catalytic stability and selectivity. As shown in Fig. 5, the TN removal rates in the five tests were 99.9 %, 99.9 %, 98.9 %, 95.9 %, and 92.9 %, which were maintained at high levels (Fig. 5a). The SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> generation rate in the five tests was maintained above 99 % (Fig. 5b). Moreover, the CuNW@CF cathode was applied to reduce NO<sub>x</sub> under different CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, and the results showed that NO<sub>x</sub> reduction trends did not change with different  $CO_3^{2-}$  concentrations (Fig. S22). To confirm the effects of other gases, experiments with exposure to different gases were conducted, and the results are shown in Fig. S23. There was no significant change in TN removal when N2 and CO2 were pumped. However, TN removal decreased when air and simulated flue gas were pumped because dissolved oxygen could directly oxidize  $SO_3^2$ to SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>; thus, SO<sub>4</sub>• production was suppressed, which further inhibited the reaction with the generated NH<sub>4</sub> and ultimately limited TN removal. Conversely, the pumping gas accelerated the mixing of ions in the solution; thus, the rates of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> generation were accelerated. In addition, to broaden the practical application value of the PEC system, we collected spray tower treatment wastewater (details are described in Table S3) as the treatment object, and the results are shown in Fig. 6.  $SO_3^{2-}$  and TN were both decomposed within 5 h (99.4 % of  $SO_3^{2-}$  and 95.4 % of TN, respectively). After treatment via the PEC system, both the chemical oxygen demand (COD) and total nitrogen (TN) (containing  $\mathrm{NO_3^{\scriptscriptstyle -}}$  and  $\mathrm{NH_4^+})$  were lower than 15 and 0.5 mg/L, respectively, which meet the environmental quality standards for surface water (GB 3838-2002) and indicate the great potential for the practical application of PEC systems. For practical applications in combustion equipment, this technology can convert both NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> from flue gas into non-toxic and harmless  $N_2$  and  $SO_4^{2-}$  at room temperature, which means that the reaction conditions of this technology are mild and will not produce secondary pollution. As for desalination of wastewater, considering the huge difference in the solubility of Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and NaOH, evaporative crystallization is promising for Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> recovery using this technology [55].

# 4. Conclusion

This study offers new insights into the simultaneous removal of both  $SO_2$  and  $NO_x$  from waste gas and  $SO_3^{2^\circ}$  and  $NO_x$  from wastewater based on sulfite activation by PEC reaction, in which 99.9 % of TN is removed and 100 % of  $SO_3^{2^\circ}$  is converted to harmless  $SO_4^{2^\circ}$  in 120 min. Meanwhile, the TN removal rates were 42.0 times and 9.2 times higher than that of the PC and EC systems, respectively, and the  $SO_4^{2^\circ}$  generation rates were 11.0 times and 3.4 times higher than that of the PC and EC systems, respectively. In addition, ESR experiments revealed the functions of  $SO_3\bullet^{-}$  and  $SO_4\bullet^{-}$ . In the PEC system, the main reactive species were  $SO_3\bullet^{-}$  and  $SO_4\bullet^{-}$ , which resulted in a high TN removal rate under alkaline conditions, while  $SO_3\bullet^{-}$  was the initiator, thus leading to  $SO_4\bullet^{-}$  formation. This study provides important technical and fundamental knowledge for the possible application of PEC treatments using sulfurous and nitrogenous oxides.



**Fig. 6.** The removal rate of  $SO_3^2$  and TN in real spray wastewater. (Condition: 10 times diluted). Due to the large amount of suspended solids caused by the limestone-based method, the actual waste liquid is filtered before treatment.

### CRediT authorship contribution statement

Changhui Zhou: Conceptualization, Data curation, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. Jinhua Li: Visualization, Investigation, Supervision. Yan Zhang: Investigation, Data curation, Methodology. Jing Bai: Supervision. Pengbo Wang: Methodology. Bo Zhang: Methodology. Lina Zha: Methodology. Mingce Long: Supervision. Baoxue Zhou: Conceptualization, Supervision, Project administration, Writing - review & editing.

### **Declaration of Competing Interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

### Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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### Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at <a href="doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2023.122579">doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2023.122579</a>.

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